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AUTHOR Neal, W. Patrick; And Others
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ABSTRACT

One course in persuasion reviews six theories of attitude change--five based on Otto Lerbinger's designs for persuasive communication (cognitive design, stimulus response design, motivational design, personality design, and social design), and a sixth (perceptual design) developed by the instructors. Instruction in each includes a variety of classroom exercises based on research relevant to the unit under consideration. Grading in the course began as contract grading in which the grade the student wanted and the activities and projects to be completed for that grade were agreed upon ahead of time. This has been modified to a system in which certain minimum requirements have been established for all students and those who wish a grade higher than "C" can complete any of several optional assignments. (TJ)

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A DESIGN APPROACH TO TEACHING PERSUASION: THEORY AND APPLICATION

W. Patrick Neal
University of Wisconsin--Green Bay

Gail Theus Fairhurst
Miami University, Miami Ohio

William J. Schenck-Hamlin
Kansas State University, Manhattan

William A. Haskins
Marquette University, Milwaukee, Wisconsin

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Due to the multi-faceted character of our present knowledge of persuasion, this subject presents some problems in presentation for the teacher. Both a theoretical understanding of human behavior and a pragmatic application of these theories is demanded from any course-work regardless of level. Furthermore, the relation between any explanatory model and its practical application must be carefully drawn out, particularly for the students just becoming acquainted with the study of persuasion.

Two years ago, the authors designed and implemented a fundamentals level course in persuasion based on these perceptions. Our endeavors resulted in a new approach to presenting the subject which met with some success at the fundamentals level as well as in advanced undergraduate teaching. In programming our lectures and exercises we assumed that students can become more critical consumers and more competent practitioners of persuasion through theory-based experiential activities. Our aim was to introduce them to theories of attitude formation and change and then to provide a similar classroom experience.

This article describes our handling of the vast array of relevant theoretical literature, the mechanics of communicating that theory in the classroom, and the evolution of the course over two years to its present form.

Our Approach to Theory

The study of persuasion at basic and advanced levels has enjoyed a long tradition in most speech communication departments. In recent years there has been a dual emphasis not only on persuasion as "art" but subject to scientific verification as well. Change in the content of persuasion courses has paralleled the move of our discipline into the social and behavioral sciences. Consequently, the study of persuasion generally encompasses a host of theoretical approaches to attitude change, each approach oriented toward formalized models of component processes. Evidence of this trend can be gained from reviewing a sampling of current persuasion texts. Table 1 shows the authors of several contemporary persuasion texts and the numbers and types of theories presented in each text.

Insert Table 1

about here

Several observations are immediately apparent from the table. Lerbinger and Brembeck and Howell[11] cover the most theories with six and Larson and Ross present the least with two. Overall, the most frequent number of theories reviewed in the texts is four. Clearly, the trend is to approach the study of persuasion by selecting several, usually four, theories of attitude change.

Most of the textbooks present the theories without regard to an organizing principle. Lerbinger, on the other hand, views these theories as a set of designs which one can apply to real-life persuasive experiences for the purposes of uncovering different aspects of that experience.[2] Essentially, a design is comprised of a group of theories with common assumptions. Instead of the cumbersome and complex task of introducing many persuasive theories with the inherent possibility of confusion for the new student, one has only to introduce the basic conceptual assumptions which constitute a design. We simply introduce, for example, the assumption of cognitive balance, dissonance, and a rational line of reasoning as constituting the "Cognitive Design's" basic persuasive argument, rather than introducing Heider's model, Abelson and Rosenburg's model, Osgood, etc. In addition to the Cognitive Design, Lerbinger develops the Stimulus Response design, the Motivational design, the Personality design and the Social design, corresponding to the Consistency theories, the Learning theories, the Need-Reduction theories, the Functional theories and the Conformity theories respectively. However, Lerbinger ignores the potential of the Perceptual theories as the basis of another design.

Taking the whole gamut of persuasion theories, we introduce the student to six general designs of persuasion constituted by the five that Lerbinger introduces and the sixth which we have modified into the Perceptual design. To give the reader a more thorough understanding of our use of the designs the following synopsis is presented. We present the theoretical basis from which the designs arise, the controlling principle for each design, and our attempts to apply the theory in the

classroom through experience-based activities.[3]

Lerbinger labels the first persuasive design Stimulus Response, which is an outgrowth and reduction of the learning theories. The principles of learning have not dramatically contributed to the research on attitudes, although each learning paradigm has been applied to the formation and modification of attitudes. Staats and Staats demonstrated that attitudes could be formed according to the procedures of classical conditioning.[4] Weiss, Rawson and Passamanick empirically linked instrumental conditioning to the learning of attitudes via persuasive communication.[5] Finally, attitude change became a matter of shaping verbal behavior, through the application of reinforcement schedules in Skinner's operant conditioning.[6] The common theme of all these paradigms involves the association of certain stimuli to certain responses, which becomes the controlling principle of the S-R design. By emphasizing that to the extent attitudes can be associated with one another persuasion may occur, learning theory or the S-R design becomes a powerful tool in explaining persuasion.

We demonstrate this principle in the classroom by such things as replicating the original Staats and Staats experiment on classical conditioning, and we have developed an exercise labeled "Advertising Associations"[7] which is an extension of the classical conditioning model. The Advertising Associations exercise asks students to recall and associate various slogans for products that they have been exposed to (e.g. I'd walk a mile for a _____). We then take apart each slogan and determine the conditioned stimulus (CS), the unconditioned stimulus (US), and the response (R). Students inevitably find themselves

somewhat surprised at their own ability to be conditioned, witnessed by the large number of associations they are able to make. Both of these exercises serve to make the association of various stimuli a salient experience for the students.

The reduction of the cognitive consistency theories resulted in Lerbinger's Cognitive Design. Judging from the table given earlier, the balance or consistency theories appear to be the most popular approach to attitude change. The consistency theories assume that people are capable of processing information in a rational way. Guided by the principles of consistency, each theory postulates a need for harmony between one's internal attitudes and beliefs and all incoming information. If consistency cannot be achieved, tension occurs and the individual is stirred to take action to achieve psychological consistency again. Thus, a persuader motivates the audience by inducing dissonance, then attempts to reduce the dissonance by showing them the appropriate balancing action. Lerbinger follows suit by stressing the common assumption of the audience as rational information seekers and processers who try to achieve some consistency and stability in their environment.

In the classroom exercises students react to a variety of belief discrepant messages, either preplanned or self-constructed. One exercise involving a "free choice" situation has students reading a message attacking the widely-held belief that one should visit a physician annually for a thorough medical checkup. This exercise was developed from McGuire's research on inducing resistance to persuasion.[8] Both pretests and posttests are administered to the student, and any attitude change is noted. The dissonance arousing aspects of the

message serve as a basis for classroom discussion following the exercise. Students also discuss ways of reducing dissonance and maintaining consonance in a variety of situations encountered in their social and academic environments.

The third persuasive design is the Motivational Design. Whereas the consistency theories are the most frequently used, the need-reduction or motivational theories are some of the oldest to the study of persuasion.[9] Motivational theories examine individual behavior from a biological perspective, overlaid by several social-psychological motives.[10] From this perspective, people are goaded into action by their desire to fulfill needs and goals. As Hull argues, when a need or disturbance in homeostasis is present, a whole chain of events are stimulated to reduce that need, including drive, behavior, and need-reduction in that order.[11] The function of persuasion, therefore, is to address the need by demonstrating ways of satisfying it once aroused. This is the controlling principle of the motivational design.

To demonstrate this principle, we have developed a variety of exercises which focus upon different motivational appeals. One exercise is entitled "Maslow's Motivational Appeals." Students are asked to examine advertisements to identify basic need appeals. Class discussion focuses on the effectiveness of those appeals, based on Maslow's hierarchy of needs in terms of the various target audiences to whom they are addressed.[12] A second exercise we have used is based on the classic small group exercise, labeled the "Fall Out Shelter Problem," which we have modified to suit this design.[13] A group of students must decide who will be a part of a fall out shelter due to a serious world mishap.

Students assume roles and are asked to argue for their right of passage to this shelter based specifically on the needs of the group. By basing an argument on group needs, the motivational appeals are made more salient.

The Social Design arises from the theories concerning the pressures which impinge upon individuals to conform in group situations. This is the approach to persuasion least discussed among the books shown in Table 1. However, it probably has the most to do with people involved in interaction situations, as conformity facilitates that interaction. Conformity may be defined as change in belief or behavior as a result of group pressure.[14] These psychological pressures that are placed on individuals in face-to-face contact take the form of norms or roles that individuals are expected to play or live up to. Lerbinger stresses that individuals demonstrate some psychological involvement in a group because they pay attention to others or care about what others think. Therefore, group pressure becomes a persuasive force on members of the group. Thus, the study of conformity within the group has implications for understanding how social influence is exerted.

Various classroom exercises may be based upon modifications of the classic line experiments by Asch.[15] What is stressed, of course, is that social reality, as defined by the group, may be quite different from what individuals' physical senses tell them. Another exercise used for this design is entitled "The Power of Suggestion." Its purpose is to gain an understanding of the pressures for uniformity among group members. People may conform to the views of others simply because a suggestion, verbal or nonverbal, has been given by other members. Again, using one of Asch's

conformity theory studies, a guest speaker, four to six confederates, and a sealed bottle of colored water are required. The guest speaker, a confederate, delivers a prepared speech on the topic of osmosis, while uncapping the bottle containing the odorless water. The audience is told that the water emits an odor, and they are instructed to raise their hands when they smell it. The confederates, strategically located among the audience, begin to raise their hands, and it is predicted that others will also raise theirs, perhaps including a majority of the audience. The instructor makes note of the number and rate of raised hands, then discloses the experimental goal to the class, and leads the class in a discussion on the effects of conformity and suggestion.

The fifth design Lerbinger labels the Personality Design. It is a reduction and outgrowth of the functional theories of attitudes which state that an individual's attitudes are a reflection of one's total identity. The functional theories have only recently been introduced to the study of persuasion. Consequently, they are not as widely discussed as the consistency or motivational theories. Unlike any of the other persuasion theories, functional theories are more oriented to individual differences or one's personal style. Rather than postulate a universal need for consistency or drive to reduce a disturbance in homeostasis, the functional theories of Katz[16] and Smith, Bruner, and White[17] adopt the view that appropriate persuasive strategies cannot be developed until the persuader knows the function or role that an individual's attitudes serve in the ongoing personality of the person (e.g. value expressive, knowledge, ego-defensive, and adjustment). The assumption held is that this knowledge should point to the conditions under which change can be

expected. Lerbinger emphasizes this very principle and suggests that a careful study of the role of attitudes is warranted before change is induced. For example, one must take care in the employment of strong fear appeals or run the risk of evoking the ego-defensive function thus blocking potentially persuasive messages.

Classroom experiences involving role playing are particularly suited to demonstrating this design. Role playing allows students to assume meaningful roles that bear heavily on how one chooses to form their attitudes. In addition, a review of several fear appeals found in the media (e.g. cigarette smoking, driver safety, etc.) are reviewed and analyzed for their effectiveness on potential target audiences. To illustrate the personality design, Katz's functional theory provides a specific exercise. We divide the students into small groups. Each group is asked to choose three products and hypothesize four appeals based on Katz's functional theory for each product. Before they begin to work out the appeals, the following example of assumptions underlying the choice of a new car is given:

> An individual who holds a utilitarian attitude toward cars would be interested in a machine that is efficient, economical, easy to maneuver, sturdy, and practical. However, personal safety might be a key issue for the person who has formed an ego-defensive attitude toward car ownership. In this case, the individual would make his/her choice based on how much protection the car could provide from the bad habits of other drivers. An environmentalist could demonstrate a value-expressive attitude toward the car when his/her concern for pollution and life expectancy of a car takes precedence in the purchase. Finally, the individual who buys a Mercedes-Benz because of the

stereotype he/she holds about the superior quality of German craftsmanship is employing the knowledge function in the decision to buy. The product appeals from the various groups generated a class discussion on the functional theories of attitudes and the personality design.

We have developed a sixth design, entitled the Perceptual Design, which is based on the perceptual theories of persuasion. On the basis of the textbooks in Table 1, there are at least two varieties of perceptual theories. Those are the Social Judgment theories[18] and Attribution theory, of which the latter may be further divided into two variants consisting of Jones and Davis' Theory of Correspondent Inferences[19] and Bem's Self Perception theory.[20] As a whole, the theories have one thing in common; they attempt to conjoin the principles of judgment with the phenomena of attitude change. However, the changing of attitudes is brought about first by a change in perceptions rather than by a direct appeal to one's attitude. Persuasion depends first upon the receiver's judgment or initial categorization of the attitude object, and then on his/her "desire" to reorder the categories. This design is implemented in the classroom through classic examples of image change as it affects persuasion (e.g. Marlboro cigarettes, Richard Nixon, etc.).

An organizing principle, which is readily taught to the entry level student, is abstracted from a synthesis of the controlling elements for each group of theories. The student is able to achieve a mastery of the rudiments of the various approaches to persuasion and is prepared for a thorough understanding of the material at the advanced level.

Since each design makes different assumptions about behavior, they are necessarily reductionistic. Consequently, one or more designs can be applied to any given persuasive event, each design with a different emphasis. In having students classify or "size up" situations through the designs, we found that students could readily apply four or five designs to any event instead of just one or two. Persuasion now becomes a multifaceted experience for the student, and the theories which constitute all the designs are not compromised in any way except to generalize to their basic assumptions.

In summary, a typical example of being able to apply several designs to a persuasive phenomena may be found in the Weight Watchers organization. This is an organization that promotes losing weight. The motivational design is appropriate in that certain self-preservation, social, and esteem needs become pronounced (e.g. the body is in a state of disequilibrium when overweight), and thus individuals join the organization to reduce the needs by losing weight. Second, due to the way that group meetings are run based on social reinforcement, group pressure and conformity to group norms (e.g. the social design) helps to explain an individual's eventual weight loss. According to the cognitive design, an individual might hold two cognitions about the relationship between the idea "slimness" and his/her own self image. To the extent that the self image is contrary to the image about slimness, dissonance results and the individual joins and stays on Weight Watchers until the two images are compatible. Finally, the S-R design is applicable in that by following the diet schedule supplied by Weight Watchers, it is reinforcing in the

sense one loses weight by following it. Thus learning theory in the form of instrumental conditioning plays a role here. The same kind of analysis and application may be applied to the myriad of persuasive experiences the student encounters.

A Structure for Assignments and Evaluation

Several possibilities for grading in the basic persuasion course are open to the instructor. A careful review was made of possible grading schemes including contract grading.[21] In making the determination of which system to use, several criteria were kept in mind. In addition to normal concerns for fairness, consistency, efficiency, and accountability, there was an overriding concern for flexibility. The course we were designing was a service course for the entire university; students came from extremely divergent backgrounds, interests, and majors. We hoped to create a system of assignments and grading which would best meet the needs of all the students.

The system initially adopted was a contract grading system. Students contracted for the grade they wanted, and they also contracted for the activities and projects they would do to fulfill the requirements for the grade they had elected. Restrictions, in the form of required activities and projects, were kept to a minimum. Students were required to take and pass an examination and to give at least one oral performance. There was a restriction on the number of absences permissible in order to achieve each grade level. All activities, projects, and examinations were graded pass/no-pass.

At the end of the first term in which the system was employed, the entire process was reviewed. The essential features of the contract remained although several changes (indicated below) were made. Since that time the grading system has undergone four revisions and now appears to be satisfactorily meeting the needs of both students and faculty.

The name of the system was relabeled the "agreement grading system." The new title more accurately reflected the true nature of the system. There was no "contract" as such, no penalty for failing to fulfill the contract, etc. The substitution of "agreement" for "contract" seemed to reduce the confusion and anxiety students associated with the quasi-legal contract form.

A noteworthy drawback of the contract system, as it was initially cast, was its total substitution of increased quantity of student work to compensate for the lack of quality differentiation in the pass/no-pass grading. There did not appear to be any appreciable increase in the student's understanding or conceptualization of the theory in the course as a result of having done a larger quantity of work. To compensate for the lack of quality differentiation (e.g. graded A, B, C, D, F), while maintaining the freedom of the pass/no-pass system, the agreement was divided into two parts: required activities and optional activities.

Under the agreement system, as it now stands, all students must complete the required activities, including midterm and final examinations and one major persuasive speech. These activities are graded on a traditional quality differentiated basis.

Each student is also required to undertake some optional activities. The higher the grade the student seeks, the larger the number of points that must be accrued in the optional category. Each optional activity must be accompanied by a written theoretical analysis. The theoretical analysis ties the option to the six basic designs by indicating the design(s) found in the activity and how the student identified them. The analysis demonstrates the student's ability to apply the theory in the course to persuasive practices. The analysis is usually no longer than a paragraph, but it helps to insure that some quality has entered into the optional work.

The optional activities are graded on a pass/no-pass basis. If an activity or paper, etc. is deemed by the instructor to be passing, the student accrues a certain number of points as prescribed in the agreement. If the option is graded no-pass the student receives no points, but does have the opportunity, with the instructor's consent, to rework and resubmit the activity. The retention of at least part of the pass/no-pass grading is based on a belief that such a system frees the student to try different and unusual activities. The student is not constrained by the fear of receiving a low grade that might come with a quality differentiated system. With the combination of the two grading systems quality is assured where it counts, on the exams and a speech, and freedom, flexibility, and creativity are sparked in the optional areas. The system seems to reap the benefits of both grading schemes.

A syllabus is given to each student at the start of the course, which suggests a number of options and their point value.[22] A sampling of the options is presented in Table 2. In addition to the optional

activities suggested in the syllabus, the student is encouraged to propose other options which might be of more interest or value to him or her. The requirements and point values for these activities are worked out by student and instructor and become a part of the agreement.

Insert Table 2

about here

The final grade the student achieves in the class is determined by the points in the required activities and the points in the optional activities. These two categories are independent, and the student must achieve the needed point total in each category. (Table 3 presents the required points for each category for each grade level.) If the student fails to achieve the necessary points in either category, the grade is based on the lower point total. For example, using the points suggested in Table 3, if a student accumulated 380 points in the required activities but only 250 points in the optional activities the final grade would be a C.

Insert Table 3

about here

The student is asked to prepare two copies of the agreement by the second week of the term. Both student and instructor sign the copies if the agreement is mutually acceptable, and each party retains one copy. Changes may be made in the agreement at any time through consultation between student and instructor. There is no penalty if the student fails to complete all the options in their agreement. Failure to complete an option results in a lower point total and may, therefore, result in a lower grade.

One possible concern that could be raised about the contract and agreement grading system is the tendency for grade inflation. An analysis of the grades in this system with another freshman level course in communication graded on a quality differentiated basis, reveals little variation in the grades over a 2 year period. Overall, the agreement system tends to give more A grades and fewer B grades than the traditional system. The other grade levels are very similar. One possible explanation for the increased number of A's and fewer B's is the fact that the student clearly sets out what is to be done and realizes that if what is planned is achieved the grade will be guaranteed. In any event, the grades are comparable, and the agreement system is not a significant cause of grade inflation.

The major advantage of the agreement system, which far outweighs its problems, is the flexibility it allows. Students become more involved in activities because they are things the student has chosen to do rather than something the instructor has assigned. There is a tendency for the students to develop optional activities of great diversity which only helps to strengthen the overall class. The instructor

is able to fill gaps where they occur, emphasize new and diverse applications of theory and, perhaps most importantly, learn as well as teach.

Conclusion

We have attempted to set forth a structure for the teaching of persuasion. We discussed the use of designs adopted from Otto Lerbinger and our additions to Lerbinger as a unifying principle for the course. The six designs were implemented in the classroom through the use of experience-based exercises. Finally, we discussed the evolution of assignments and grading schemes for the course. Our aim has been to suggest a viable alternative to the study of persuasion.

At several points in this article we have suggested what we perceived to be successes and benefits of this system. Such suggestions were made based on the authors' own perceptions. However, our perceptions were verified by student reactions and evaluations. The students have reported, through both formal and informal channels, that they enjoyed the flexibility and individuality the course promotes. Student evaluations of this course have been as high or higher than for other fundamentals level courses in the Speech Department at the University of Oregon. The only frequent complaint from students has centered on the work demands of the class created by the substitution of increased quantity of work for quality differentiated work. The authors firmly believe that this course produces students who will become more cautious, intelligent, and selective consumers of persuasion

as well as better practitioners of persuasion, particularly since students are required to continually relate theory to practice.

Footnotes

[1]Otto Lerbinger, Designs for Persuasive Communication (Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, 1972); Charles U. Larson, Persuasion: Reception and Responsibility (Belmont, California: Wadsworth, 1973); Raymond S. Ross, Persuasion: Communication and Interpersonal Relations (Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, 1974); Ronald L. Applbaum and Karl W. E. Anatol, Strategies for Persuasive Communication (Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill, 1974); Stephen W. King, Communication and Social Influence (Reading, Massachusetts: Addison-Wesley, 1975); Wayne N. Thompson, The Process of Persuasion: Principles and Readings (New York: Harper and Row, 1975); Herbert W. Simons, Persuasion: Understanding, Practice, and Analysis (Reading, Massachusetts: Addison-Wesley, 1976); Winston Brembeck and William Howell, Persuasion: A Means of Social Influence, 2nd Edition (Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, 1976).

[2]Otto Lerbinger, pp. 53-112.

[3]Over the past 2 years, the authors have collected and created a wide range of activities which are now compiled into a supplementary workbook.

[4]A. W. Staats and C. K. Staats, "Attitudes Established by Classical Conditioning," Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, 57 (1958), 37-40.

[5]Robert Weiss, Harve Rawson and Benjamin Pasamanick, "Argument Strength, Delay of Argument, and Anxiety in the 'Conditioning' and 'Selective Learning' of Attitudes," Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, 67 (1963), 157-165.

[6]B. F. Skinner, Verbal Behavior (New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1957).

[7]G. Fairhurst, W. Haskins, P. Neal and W. Schenck-Hamlin, Exercises in Persuasion (University of Oregon: University of Oregon Book Store, 1977).

[8]W. J. McGuire, "Inducing Resistance to Persuasion: Some Contemorary Approaches," in Advances in Experimental Social Psychology, ed. L. Berkowitz (New York: Academic Press, 1964), I, 191-229.

[9]James Albert Winans, Public Speaking (New York: The Century Company, 1919), pp. 197-205; Alan H. Monroe, Principles and Types of Speech (New York: Scott, Foresman and Company, 1935), pp. 189-213.

[10]Ross, p. 50.

[11]Clark L. Hull, Principles of Behavior (New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1943).

[12]A. H. Maslow, Motivation and Personality (New York: Harper & Bros., 1954).

[13]S. B. Simon, L. W. Howe, and H. Kirschenbaum, Values Clarification (New York: Hart Publishing Co., Inc., 1972), pp. 281-286.

[14]See Charles A. Kiesler and Sara B. Kiesler, Conformity (Reading, Massachusetts: Addison-Wesley, 1969).

[15]S. E. Asch, "Studies of Independence and Conformity," Psychological Monographs, 70, (1956), 1-70.

[16]Daniel Katz, "The Functional Approach to the Study of Attitudes" Public Opinion Quarterly, 24, (1960), 163-204.

[17]M. B. Smith, J. S. Bruner, and R. W. White, Opinions and Personality (New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1956).

[18]See Muzafer Sherif, Carolyn Sherif, and Roger Nebergall, Attitude and Attitude Change (Philadelphia: Saunders, 1965).

[19]E. E. Jones and K. E. Davis, "From Acts to Dispositions: The Attribution Process in Person Perception," in Advances in Experimental Social Psychology, ed. Leonard Berkowitz (New York: Academic Press,

1956), II, 219-226.

[20]Daryl J. Bern, Beliefs, Attitudes and Human Affairs (Belmont, California: Broolss/Cole Publishing Company, 1970), pp. 48-54.

[21]Brian P. Holleran, "The Use of Performance Options in Speech Courses," Today's Speech, 21 (Winter 1972), pp. 27-29; also see the several articles in the "Symposium on Communication Evaluation," Speech Teacher, 24 (March 1975), pp. 127-150.

[22]Single copies of the syllabus are available from the authors.

TABLE 1
A Survey Of Persuasion Theories
Included In Selected Persuasion Texts

Authors and Publication Date	Theories of Attitude Change					
	Learning	Consistency	Need - Reduction	Functional	Conformity	Perceptual
1. Lerbinger (1972)	X	X	X	X	X	X
2. Larson (1973)		X	X			
3. *Ross (1974)		X	X			
4. Applbaum and Anatol (1974)	X	X		X		X
5. King (1975)	X	X	X		X	
6. Thompson (1975)		X	X	X		X
7. Simons (1976)	X	X		X		X
8. Brembeck and Howell (1976)	X	X	X	X	X	X

*Ross treats cognitive consistency as a special case of the need---reduction or motivational theories.

TABLE 2
Examples of Optional Activities

Activity	Points
I. Oral (Students are allowed only one optional oral activity due to restraints of time.)	
A. Persuasive Speech--10 minutes Outline, bibliography, and theoretical analysis	100
B. Informative Speech on a Persuasive Theme	100
C. Point-Counterpoint (mini-debate with another student)	100
D. Audio Advertisement One minute, recorded commercial message for a product, candidate, etc.	100
II. Written	
A. Book Report 5 page report on a book approved by the instructor	100
B. Journal Article Report 5 page maximum report on a journal article approved by the instructor	50
C. Analysis of Printed Advertisements A paper reporting analysis, description, and evaluation of ten or more advertisements found in the print media	100
D. Persuasive Editorial Must be published for credit	50
E. Critical Analysis of a Speaker	
1. Short Analysis Complete a standard one page form reporting on a speech you attended	25
2. Long Analysis 4-5 page paper analyzing a speech you heard	75
F. Journal of Persuasive Events	100
G. Glossary Define, explain, and describe the terms on the glossary list. (The glossary is a collection of the 40 key terms in the course.)	100

TABLE 3
Determination of Final Grade*

Grade	Required Activities (minimum points)	Optional Activities (minimum points)
A	380	500
B	325	350
C/Pass	270	225
D**		

*These are point totals for a term long class, a semester length class would involve more activities and points.

**The University does not have a grade of D. Adjustments in all the points would need to be made with the inclusion of the D grade.